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The Man of the Future.

MAN being, zoologically, the highest organism known, the question of his further evolution and its probable direction is one which is naturally of interest to the student of anthropology. Is the development of a higher species possible or probable?

In order to even partially answer this question we must first consider what would constitute perfection or an approach to it. We are met at the very threshold of the problem by the fact, apparent on every hand, that the human product of our present civilization is, in the vast majority of instances, a very unequally developed organism, physically and mentally: an asymmetrical creature, the victim, so to speak, of specialism of one kind or another; it may be of environment or of occupation, usually of both. Hence the necessarily great diversity of view as to what would be improvement in the race.

It is a self-evident fact that improvement of the individual means, in the long run, advancement of the race; but when we ask what constitutes individual improvement, we receive one answer from the sociologist, another from the political economist, a third from the athlete or artist, and still a different reply from the philosopher.

That an easily-governed and equably-tempered people are not necessarily of a high type of humanity is evident from the experience of China, where a population of 350,000,000 is governed by a standing army of only 80,000 and the simplest police regulations,—a state of affairs unparalleled in the history of the so-called civilized nations. The perfection of their civil service and the insignificant expense of state officials are also said to be marvellous in the light of our experience. This state of affairs has been attributed to the perfection of their social training system, but it seems to the writer also allowable to suppose that many centuries of low diet, with overcrowding and mental subjection, have largely eliminated that spirit of restlessness and opposition to authority so characteristic of western peoples.

The ideas of the gymnast or exponent of physical culture, and of the purely intellectual sophist, are equally at fault in the solution of our question of improvement of the race; for it is evident to all medical men, at least, that powerful muscles may be a source of vital weakness to their possessor by inducing heart strain, or by overtaxing the eliminative capacity of the kidneys and other depurative organs, in the disposal of the results, the ashes so to speak, of muscular combustion. And, again, even a powerful brain may be menaced in its integrity by a weak or diseased bloodvessel incapable of withstanding the pressure caused by high functional activity.

The zoologist, therefore, sees the true strength of the individual, the race, and the species in (1) their plasticity, i.e., adaptability or capacity for modification in response to changes of environment, provided this plasticity be not the cause of localized weaknesses; and (2) equilibrium of development, organic balance, so to speak, between the component parts of the animal.

The question has been asked, Would not the development of wings or other additional organs be an improvement in the species? The reply to this, on zoological principles, would be No. The addition of wings, for instance, would be a retrogression to a lower type; and if the wings were feathered, a still further retrogression. We must conclude, then, that wings are incompatible with progress, zoologically considered, all visions of angels to the contrary notwithstanding.

In fact it is difficult to foresee any structural change of plan that would be an improvement under our present environment.

While, therefore, we may anticipate an increase in the average perfection of parts, and consequently a more harmonious development of man's present plan of structure, we cannot rationally look for any radical change in the plan itself. Hence we may conclude, upon purely theoretical grounds, as well as zoological experience, that under present conditions man is, in his plan of structure, the highest type of animal that can be produced; and while this may seem to coincide with the philosophy of the fatalist, "whatever is, is right," it is nevertheless true.

Improvement in organic balance or correlation of organs, therefore, is the chief direction of advance possible, and this improvement may be favored by the avoidance of excessive specialism in

environment and occupation, by which certain organs are overdeveloped, while others are dwarfed from disuse.

The ideal man is the perfectly balanced man, physically and mentally; neither an athlete, an intellectual giant, nor a zoological monstrosity, but a being harmoniously developed in all parts.

It may be objected that such an organism would, like the "one-hoss shay" of Dr. Holmes, go to pieces all at once. But would not this imply a useful capacity and activity up to a good old age, of which we have striking examples in the lives of Audubon, Jefferson, and Darwin, and be vastly preferable to a break at forty from some one weak organ?

The maxim, "A chain is only as strong as its weakest link," applies here as forcibly as it does in mechanics.

Cincinnati, O., Sept. 15.

DR. F. W. LANGDON.

BOOK-REVIEWS.

A History of Chemistry. By Ernst von Meyer. Translated by George M'Gowan. New York and London, Macmillan. 8°. \$4.50.

There have not been many histories of chemistry written, the best known being probably that of Kopp, which began to appear nearly fifty years ago. The same is true of physics, the only one that now occurs to us being that of Poggendorf, yet it has often seemed that it would be well for the student to be informed of the way by which the present state of science has been reached, yet it is but rarely that such information is imparted in lectures or in the class-room.

One reason for this may be in the worthlessness of what has gone before, which is strongly brought out in our author's treatment of alchemy. The benefits which accrued to chemistry during the centuries which were occupied by alchemists in the attempt to turn the baser metals into gold he estimates as very slight. It was but seldom that a discovery of technical value, like that of the making of porcelain, sprang from alchemistic work. On the other hand, positive harm was done by the tendency to mysticism among many of the workers, which resulted frequently in deliberate fraud.

As man seems really to care first for wealth and then for health,—at least he will give up the latter in pursuit of the former,—so after the attempt to gain riches through chemical knowledge had proved futile, attention was turned by investigators—and these of a higher class of intelligence than the earlier alchemists—to a development of the knowledge of drugs and their action on the human system, and to this period a chapter is devoted.

One phenomenon which was evidently chemical in its nature — combustion — had always interested chemists, and gave rise to the phlogiston theory, which held sway from soon after the death of Boyle till the discovery of oxygen in 1774. This theoretical view of combustion had a great influence on the progress in the accumulation of chemical truths, and it may be that here again some would urge that little attention need now be paid to these antiquated doctrines. But it may be well for the wisest of the physicists and chemists of the present day to occasionally have it pointed out to them how essentially false doctrines can maintain themselves for considerable periods when once they have received the endorsement of men wise in their day and generation.

Chemistry, as we know it, came into full possession of its faculties with the beginning of the use of the balance and the discovery of oxygen. The systematization of the facts as they were discovered was based, first, on the atomic theory of Dalton, and later on the doctrine of valency as developed during the past thirty years. All this development of the science is described historically in the early chapters of the book before us.

The closing chapter is devoted to a special history of the various branches of chemistry, from Lavoisier to the present day. In this chapter are treated the history of analytical chemistry, and of pure chemistry, inorganic and organic, which naturally leads to a consideration of thermo-chemistry or of physical chemistry in general. Technical chemistry is not neglected, nor are physiological and agricultural, which offer as difficult problems as any in the whole science. A section of interest is devoted to the methods of chemi-